



# SCHOOL LIFE

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## AS OTHERS SEE US.

An Official French Estimate of American Education—  
M. Maurice Roger, Inspecteur Général de l'Instruction  
Publique, Writes of American Characteristics in His An-  
nual Report.

In the United States the fever of enthusiasm for the school is high. The Americans have faith in education. Free from tradition, they are constantly making innovations, without being held back by those ties which are stronger for being of long standing. They shrink from no expense to improve education. They risk millions to test methods, and they often give up an experiment before they have pushed it to its logical completion. All progress interests them only in so far as it paves the way to still further progress. They have a horror of halfway measures, and they scorn immobility, which seems to them necessarily to imply slowing up or retrogression. They have the enthusiasm of faith.

### Victory Brought a New Era.

The war has heightened their ardor. There is hardly an American who does not date a new era from the victory, an era whose setting is to be fixed by the school—the new school—for the idea is nowhere entertained that the school can be after 1918 what it was before. Indeed, not all the problems the Americans have set themselves to solve date from the war. Ignorance, "illiteracy," is an evil which has long been fought; but it was the call to arms that revealed, in the various groups of recruits, almost 25 per cent unable to read and understand a newspaper and to express their thoughts in writing. The war brought out in strong light the fact that immigrants, for many years settled in the United States, and the sons of immigrants, born in the United States, did not know a word of English and were totally ignorant of the institutions of

<sup>1</sup> See for example *The School of the People*, being the report of G. F. James to the National War Work Council of the Y. M. C. A.

<sup>2</sup> Report of Frank E. Spaulding, at the Milwaukee meeting, 1919.

[Continued on page 14.]

## EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

Criticism of "Dilatory Policy" in Rebuilding Schools—  
Strong Sentiment for Decentralization—Rapid Extension of  
Labor-Union Ideas—"Les Compagnons."

By WALTER A. MONTGOMERY.

Marked impatience has developed in the devastated regions at what is held to be the culpable dilatory policy of the Government in not pushing the rebuilding and repair of schools and general resumption of school work. An unofficial States general of the 10 devastated districts has been organized, which through representative local committees has assumed active direction of education in that area.

### Regionalism.

Advocates of the decentralization of the traditional educational systems have welcomed the growth of the move called "Regionalism." Its appeals are distinctively literary and sectional, and therefore carry weight sentimentally. Many see in these very characteristics the means of bringing into closer articulation the multifarious local needs and the action of a centralized ministry. This is the conception which has prompted the organization of the teachers of the Gironde. It is expressly designed to safeguard the interests of the rural school, and to check the continuous drain of the best rural teachers into the urban centers.

### Teachers and Labor Affiliation.

Within the past year the question of the moral and legal right of teachers to organize in specific unions affiliated with local labor unions and to go on strike has come to overshadow all others pertaining to the status of teachers. This move has gone hand in hand with the increasing stringency of economic conditions. A few local teachers' associations had early in the war affiliated with the labor unions without attracting any marked notice. Within five months in 1919 they had increased from 90 to more than 300. The unrest among teachers was further increased by the fact that the law conceding to all Government employees the

## EDUCATION THE FUNDAMENTAL NEED OF DEMOCRACY.

There is no reform more urgently required from every point of view than a great diffusion of education among the people at large. Higher mental training brings born leaders to the front. But it does more than this. It raises the standards of those whom it molds. It solves automatically our social problems. The well-educated man is not content with low wages nor with bad housing for himself or his family. He knows how to use his leisure and how to obtain intimate companionship and stimulation from the minds of the great ones who have revealed themselves without restraint in books. In his hours of labor he works hard and with concentrated purpose, because he recognizes it to be his duty. The workman is not less capable than others of being filled with the spirit of Shakespeare and Milton; with the lessons of ancient history as well as modern; with the realization of the relativity of all knowledge as Plato and Spinoza and the great English teachers of recent times have exhibited it; with the sense of the tremendous advances of science since Francis Bacon wrote, and as Darwin and Newton and even Einstein in our own day have developed them. He desires to know what economics and the theory of the state mean to the man who studies them in their entire field for the sake of truth alone.—Lord Haldane, Chancellor of Bristol University.

right to organize omitted teachers. Since then, every local organization of teachers has been split over this question. In most, it has been a marked feature that the younger and more vigorous element, favoring thoroughgoing measures, has constituted the majority.

In September, 1919, representatives of the local associations, in special meeting in Paris, voted unanimously to transform each local association into a local labor union; and by a vote of 4 to 1, to recommend organic affiliation on a national scale.

#### Schools of Educational Thought.

Recent educational thought and discussion in France has fallen into three main lines. First, the utilitarians, generally the publicists, viewing the appalling industrial and agricultural devastation, hold that all reforms in education must be strictly adapted to economic needs. They urge a type of education almost exclusively technical.

The second group, humanitarian in character, demands a moral and not an economic basis for the French education of the new day. They plead for "the spiritual foundation of reconstruction," laid deep in the character of the individual, primarily.

The third group, lying midway, is perhaps most representative of the temper of French thought. A very able group, composed of many elements of national life, it urges an intensive general training, acquainting the pupils with the basis of national culture, and later superposing special utilitarian training.

#### Proposals For Educational Reform.

Definite proposals for educational reform fall into two main lines:

First may be considered the recommendations projected by M. Paul Lapie, director of primary education, and therefore possessing official weight. They would have education rest upon the economic basis, but also keep steadily in view the general training "in national culture indispensable for all Frenchmen." Specific rural or industrial environment should guide content and method, adhering to the principle of "No compromise on the unity of the primary school; increase of its net results by judicious specialization." The teacher must undergo specialized training from his very entrance into the normal school; yet equality of teachers in all categories, normal, rural, and urban, must be safeguarded. Normal schools should be regional, taught only by specialists, and aiming to train the specialized teacher.

In the elementary field, M. Lapie's salient points are that education shall be free in all its branches, and that all

children of 6 to 14 years shall be required to attend the primary school, either public or private.

In the secondary field, public education shall be recruited exclusively by means of competitive examination in primary education, public or private; maintenance funds shall be granted wherever necessary. In adolescent education, there shall be established or developed special vocational instruction along agricultural, industrial, or commercial lines.

In all fields, integral democratization of French education shall be encouraged.

#### Ideas of "Les Compagnons."

The second line of reform was that broached during the war and subsequently developed by a group of young men, teachers before and after the war, calling themselves "Les Compagnons" (The Companions). Their proposals for educational reform were regarded from the beginning as daringly radical, and have been warmly debated ever since they were put forth.

Les Compagnons maintain that the national education of the future must be practical, creative, adapted to actual life; measured by these standards, the pre-war education fell short and must be reformed in toto; educational polity should be absolutely democratic; primary instruction should be extended to the age of 14 years, and attendance at the *école unique* made obligatory upon all; vocational instruction properly graded should be imparted in all fields and for all children of whatsoever circumstances; gifted children should be admitted free to all secondary schools; vocational education should be arranged along lines agreed upon by educational officials, the ministry of commerce, employers' syndicates, and workmen's associations; in every possible way, the selection and development of an educational *élite* should be systematically pursued; in all its varying forms, the unity of culture in the French national thought must be maintained.

#### Interest in Physical Education.

The keen interest in physical education awakened by the war has naturally subsided to some degree; but it left enduring effects upon the educational ideals of the nation. It was informally incorporated in the school courses of many localities. Popular associations for physical training have sprung up in increasing numbers, the national one, L'Union National des Sociétés Gymnastiques, counting 1,620 branches with a total of 400,000 members. The entire movement has crystallized in the proposed law now pending, drawn up by the commission upon physical education, working in conjunction with the Council of the League

of School Hygiene. This projected law centers around the requirement that physical education in the primary schools be put under the supervision of regular and special inspectors, among whom shall be the school physician as a permanent representative. The adoption of a health chart is proposed to show the record of growth of each pupil from entrance to departure.

As early as possible after the armistice, a survey of health conditions was instituted by the National Academy of Medicine in the occupied and devastated regions. It revealed an appalling condition of malnutrition, below-normal weight, and prevalence of throat, heart, adenoid, and tracheobronchial affections.

Outside the immediate theater of war, the authorities also report a hygienic and physiological deterioration among the children sufficiently alarming to arouse the national officials to the urgent need of remedial action. The medical profession have thrown themselves in an unprecedented way into the task of impressing the Nation with the duty of making physical education the basis of all education.

#### Improvement in School Attendance.

In primary education, school attendance, which naturally suffered in increasing degree with the social demoralization resulting from the war, was reported as having improved encouragingly after the armistice. At best it was serious, however, and called forth many complaints from rural districts as well as those of Paris, upon the nonenforcement of the compulsory requirement of the law. This entire subject naturally linked itself with that of juvenile delinquency as a national problem and menace. Movements have been initiated to have the incorrigible child removed from the environment and influences which tended to turn him from merely a poor pupil to a potential law-breaker.

An interesting development is to be traced from the enforced curtailing of school courses due to war and post-war conditions, and to the epidemic of la grippe prevalent in 1918-19. This was the aroused interest in the possibility of securing better work from the individual pupil, and so of showing the advantages likely to accrue from less crowded programs. The director of primary education by circular also urged more attention to elementary science teaching, and its application to practical lines of school gardens, laboratories, and museums of local productions.

#### Continuation Education.

In the field of higher primary education an exceedingly important event is the taking up again by the Parliament of  
(Continued on page 13.)



## ENGLAND ADOPTS GERMAN'S DEGREE.

**British Universities, Except Cambridge, Will Confer Doctorate of Philosophy.**

Germany's characteristic academic degree, the doctorate of philosophy, will hereafter be conferred by British universities. This determination is the result of a recommendation made early in 1918 by the Prime Minister's Committee upon the Position of Natural Science in the Educational System of Great Britain.

The establishment upon the higher educational system of Great Britain of the doctor of philosophy degree, so long identified with Germany in its origin and academic traditions, and with America in its adoption and widespread prestige, is an event of the utmost significance. Whether it will result in the dethronement of the traditional British master of arts does not now appear. It may be regarded, however, as a step designed to attract American students in increasing numbers from the German universities which they frequented for a half a century before 1914.

The announcement is made that the degree is offered by the University of Oxford and the municipal universities of Birmingham, Bristol, Durham, Leeds, Liverpool, London, Manchester, and Sheffield; by the University College of North Wales, Bangor; by the Universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow, and by Trinity College, Dublin. It is worthy of note that Cambridge was not included in the announcement.

The requirements for the degree are substantially uniform for all the institutions which will confer it. The applicant for admission to study for the degree must have graduated at a university approved by the university agency having the degree in charge, and be at least 21 years of age. Oxford, however, requires 22 years of age, and Bristol, Durham, Glasgow, London, and Manchester set no minimum age limitation.

### Research the Fundamental Characteristic.

Research is expressly laid down as the fundamental characteristic of the course, many of the universities having issued supplementary pamphlets setting forth the requirements for the degree under the title "Facilities for Advanced Study and Research." The particular subjects and their combinations are in all cases in the discretion of the university authorities. All the municipal institutions permit, even encourage, the student to spend not more than a year at other institutions after the completion of one year of work.

In accordance with the recommendation of the Prime Minister's committee, the duration of the course of study for the degree is set at two years. Oxford alone discriminates between her own graduates and others, defining the course as of two years for those "who have taken high honors at Oxford," and as "normally for three years for those who have pursued at their previous university a satisfactory research course." Glasgow also fixes a period of three academic years.

### Thesis Uniformly Required.

All the universities require an original thesis, or as Oxford terms it, "dissertation," to be submitted by the candidate on the completion of the prescribed period of research, and to be approved by the university agency in authority. With the exception of Liverpool, all require oral examination upon matters relevant to the subject of the thesis.

The requirement of the written examination either upon the thesis, or upon matters cognate thereto, or both, varies. Oxford alone exempts candidates "working under the boards of the faculties of medicine and natural science." Bristol and Leeds make no provision for written or oral examinations.

## INTEREST IN DANISH FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS.

**The Type Comes Close to Educational Ideals Developed Since the War.**

Great Britain and Germany are seeking models for their school reorganization in the folk high schools of Denmark, that type coming close to certain new educational ideals that have arisen during and since the war. Besides the general influence these schools may have had in other countries, two specific movements have been the result: An endeavor to establish at Copenhagen an international school which would be prepared to instruct pupils from other countries in the methods and principles that have made the Danish schools famous. The other is announced under the ambitious title of a "World Association for Adult Education." Albert Mansbridge, the chairman of its provisional committee, 13 John Street, London, W. C., speaks of the Danish high school as the one type that has seen the significance of adult education. In the first bulletin issued the World Association states its purpose to "dispel the melancholy belief that grown men and women have nothing left to learn, and to diffuse throughout all countries in every section of society the sense of wonder and curiosity, and the gift of mutual sympathy and companionship."

## AMERICAN HISTORY AT OXFORD.

**Professorship Endowed by Lord Rothermere in Memory of His Son.**

A professorship of history of the United States of America has been established at the University of Oxford. Viscount Rothermere, former Secretary of State for Air Forces of Great Britain, has given £20,000 to endow the professorship. It will be known as the Harold Vyvyan Harmsworth Professorship of American History, in memory of the donor's son, Capt. Harmsworth, formerly a commoner of Christ Church, who was killed in the war.

Under the conditions of the endowment the holder of the professorship must at the time of his election be a citizen of the United States. He shall hold the professorship for 10 years and shall be eligible for appointment for another 10 years.

The appointment shall be made by an electoral board consisting of the American ambassador at the time of the election, who shall have a casting vote; the chancellor of the university, an elector nominated by the university, and Lord Rothermere and each succeeding holder of the viscounty.

Lord Rothermere has endowed two other professorships at English universities. In 1910 he gave £20,000 to Cambridge University for the foundation of the King Edward VII Chair of English Literature, and in 1918 he gave a similar sum to Cambridge as an endowment fund for the Vere Harmsworth Professorship of Naval History, in memory of his second son, who was killed in the battle of the Ancre.

## EXCHANGE OF PUPILS BETWEEN DENMARK AND ENGLAND.

England is to send 35 agricultural students to the Danish high schools. Upon the completion of the courses they will tour Denmark and spend some time at the several experiment stations and dairy farms. Danish students will visit England next year for similar purposes. Prof. Kelpin Ravn and Dr. Vincent conducted the negotiations for the exchange.

A bill providing obligatory primary instruction to all children under 14 years of age has recently been approved by the Senate of Chile. The measure has gone back to the Chamber of Deputies for its agreement to some slight amendments in the original bill.

## AUSTRIAN TEACHERS APPEAL FOR AID.

Unable to Buy Food, They Must See Their Relatives Suffer.

An appeal for help from a number of school women of Austria was recently presented to the board of education of Cincinnati and referred by the board to the teacher organizations of that city. It presents in a vivid way the conditions under which these women are conducting their work. The letter follows:

BERNDORF, LOWER AUSTRIA,  
May 6, 1920.

DEAR COLLEAGUES: You will no doubt have heard, Ladies and Gentlemen, of the educational institutions of the far-off city of Cincinnati, of the great distress from which we are suffering in our unfortunate Austria, and more especially in Vienna and the immediate vicinity like Berndorf. You will, therefore, excuse if we, the schoolmistresses of the girls' schools of Berndorf, take the liberty of addressing to you, dear colleagues, the hearty and most pressing appeal to kindly help us in our great misery.

### Underfeeding Causes High Mortality.

It is not only the scarcity of food and the high degree of mortality caused by the underfeeding which are afflicting to such an extent those belonging to our profession, but also the fact that our totally insufficient income, which is quite out of proportion to the high cost of living, does not allow us to buy the most indispensable articles of food in sufficient quantities.

With reference to our salaries, though we have received of late some allowances for buying clothes, etc., the fact remains that many of us are quite unable to pay even for the scanty rations of food assigned by the Government. The workmen who are earning high wages are still in a position to buy additional provisions, whilst we teachers, with our comparatively low salaries, can not afford it, and are, therefore, condemned to see our relatives starve or become victims of all sorts of diseases.

You, dear colleagues, are also human beings and feel like ourselves, and are sure to have compassion with our sufferings, and the undersigned schoolmistresses of Berndorf appeal, therefore, to your generosity to help your poor and unfortunate colleagues in our city by kindly sending us food parcels or food drafts, or letting us know how we could get same, as we are not so fortunate as to have relatives in your happy country.

Will you kindly permit us to inclose herewith a post-card prospectus of the American relief action in Vienna that has newly been initiated with a view to help us in our present distress, and we would feel greatly obliged if you could see your way to make use of same to our benefit, or would be so kind as to pass our request on to a corporation of teachers who would be in a position to do so.

### Americans Feed Thousands in Vienna.

It must openly be proclaimed that the United States of America has already done a great deal to allay the distress in our unhappy country, and it suffices to mention in this respect the feeding of hundreds of thousands of poor children in Vienna and other places. This action has also been introduced in Berndorf, and more than 500 little children are receiving every day a substantial meal, and the happy faces of these little ones speak of the gratitude they are feeling toward your charitable and generous countrymen.

Anything that you would have the kindness of doing in our favor would be greatly appreciated and would acquire you our never-ceasing gratitude, and trusting to have soon the privilege of your kind reply, we remain, Ladies and Gentlemen, with kind regards,

Respectfully yours,

Schoolmistresses:

GERTRUD SCHMIDT,  
BERTA STARCH,  
TERESA WIKSCHY,  
ANNA ULICZNY,  
HILDE MITTER,  
YANBIATTA BANSCH,  
AMILIA GUMPINGER,  
M. FIALA,  
Y. KOPRIVA,  
M. BOHM,  
JOHRMUR EHEDART,  
O. CALATKA,  
Y. FOHL,  
OLGA DABROWSKA.

### THREE NEW UNIVERSITIES.

Notwithstanding financial straits, Germany has established three new universities in addition to the 21 existing before the war—the University of Frankfurt, the University of Hamburg, and the University of Cologne. All have, however, great difficulty with respect to material supplies for scientific apparatus, books, and magazines. In one university library the number of foreign magazines has been reduced since the beginning of the war from 2,300 to 140. Salaries of employees, expenses for chemicals, fuel, light, and for printing are a serious handicap in the university work.

## FRENCH AND SCOTTISH TEACHERS EXCHANGED.

Young Men of Each Country Will Work in Schools of the Other Country.

Exchange of male teachers in secondary and normal schools has been arranged by the French Ministry of Public Instruction and the Scottish Educational Department. Mature French students and instructors will be appointed as assistants in Scottish intermediate and secondary schools, and Scottish students and teachers will be sent to French lycées and primary normal schools. Appointments will take effect in September, 1920.

The actual applications made by the authorities of either country will decide the number of appointments. No specifications are laid down as to the subjects upon which the young men appointed are to give instruction. It is emphasized that the prime advantage to be derived will be the direct and colloquial training to be imparted by them to pupils in the foreign language.

The young exchange teacher will be employed to conduct small voluntary informal conversation groups of five or six pupils. He is not expected to convey to them fresh knowledge, but to induce his pupils to talk rapidly on subjects well within their grasp, and in a manner not possible in the formal class room. Not more than two hours per day will be demanded of such assistant.

Certain administrative advantages are also outlined in the scheme from the Scottish point of view. The young Frenchman will be expected to aid in advice with reference to conditions in his own country. Enhanced cordiality of international relations is thus expected to be a direct result of the practical operation of such an exchange.

Such young men will also be encouraged to take part in the games and sports of the schools to which they may be attached. They will have leisure and opportunity to pursue their own studies and will feel at liberty to consult the authorities.

In a word, such a movement may be of great value not only for teaching of modern languages to pupils who are still at the plastic stage for learning languages conversationally, but also for increasing the reciprocal knowledge of countries and extending their cordial relations. Heads of schools are urged by the educational authorities of both countries to submit a frank report at the close of each year upon the results obtained, the difficulties encountered, and the conditions that should be satisfied in order to make the best use of those assistants.



## GERMAN SCHOOLS FOR GIFTED PUPILS

*The Discovery and the Development of Exceptional Ability Is the Aim.*

By P. H. PEARSON.

Special attention to pupils of unusual ability is one of the means by which the Germans are now seeking to rehabilitate their country, and to replace the intellectual men who have lost their lives.

The city of Berlin in reorganizing the *Kölnische Gymnasium* and some other institutions, established a group of coordinated schools, the "*Berliner Begabten Schulen*," in which the selection and rapid advancement of pupils of exceptional gifts are employed as a basic principle.

The first official proposal for founding this type of school appears to have been made by Representative Cassel, who, in the Prussian Assembly, introduced a motion to establish special schools into which specially gifted pupils, after finishing the folk schools, could be received with the view of abridging the period required for the maturity examination.

### Designed Originally for Rural Districts.

Though the original intention was to establish these schools in the rural districts the realization of the idea was first carried out in the metropolis of Berlin under the direction of the school inspector, Dr. Reimann. In the autumn of 1917 he prevailed on the city authorities to establish this new type of gymnasium and *realschule* together with corresponding schools for girls.

Admission of pupils to these schools is not granted upon the application of the parents in the usual way but upon the recommendation of a municipal board of examiners and approved by the respective school superintendents. During the final year of the required attendance at the folk school, pupils are selected by their teachers in conference with the rector as candidates for promotion. In this preliminary sifting a number of them are expected to drop out, but they lose no time for they will finish their obligatory period in the usual way.

### Rigid Selection Practiced.

Those who pass the probationary year in a satisfactory manner will be admitted to an examination which will further reduce the number of those finally promoted. The form of this examination has not been definitely determined, and it is still under discussion by teachers and psychologists. These schools will follow the closing year of the folk school, but the final selection of pupils will not be made until after two years, during which period the gifts and inclinations

of the pupils are to be carefully observed. After instruction in a common course for these two years, the pupils are offered a choice between two lines for their further studies, the classical courses of the gymnasium and the modern courses of the real gymnasium.

Though a tuition fee of 140 marks is to be charged, a part of the plan is to let no consideration of expense prevent deserving pupils from having the advantages the schools offer. For this reason a large number of free scholarships and also stipends to the value of 300 marks are available.

### Only Intellectual Gifts Considered.

In view of the expected objection that this class of institutions would foster an educated proletariat, it was proposed to avoid such results, not by closing the doors of the university against the children of the poor, but by a systematic exclusion of poor and rich pupils alike if they lack the necessary gifts. The *realschule* division meets the needs of pupils gifted in practical lines. This school is, moreover, to take the place of institutions preparing for the training seminaries, schools that have been criticized as forcing pupils into a certain calling too early instead of keeping the road open as long as possible for those still young in years.

The first gymnasium of this type was calculated to accommodate an annual inflow of 90 pupils, or 1½ per cent of the 6,000 pupils that annually reach the highest class in the Berlin folk schools. Thus far the intelligence tests determining their selection show that this is approximately the proportion that may be expected to attain the classification of *Höchstbegabten*. The manner of selecting this first contingent was regarded as experimental and, likely to be modified. Each of the Berlin folk schools was requested to pick out a few of its best pupils as candidates for the *Begabten* opportunities. This primary sifting brought out 300 from which the final group was chosen by means of a series of psychological tests.

### Provisions for Technical and Aesthetic Pursuits.

The promotion of gifted pupils has been criticized as being an arrangement in the interest of bookish intellectualism, and it is said that it takes little account of those gifted in technical and aesthetic pursuits. In a session of the German

committee of education, Dr. Reimann reported that provisions for those also had been made, and that already in March, 1918, the first examination of such had been held. This examination comprised boys and girls from the folk schools who had distinguished themselves, but had showed no exceptional talent in the purely intellectual branches. The examination was conducted by a committee consisting of specialists in art, representatives from the school boards of the city, and directors from the city vocational and continuation schools. The examiners based their decisions in part on the former work of the pupils and in part on what they produced during examinations. The examinations continued for three days with drawing from nature, memory, and imagination, two hours a day being given to each subject. Among 256 boys examined 18 were found excellent (*hochbefähigt*); of these, 9 were from 13 to 14 years; the other 9 were from 15½ to 17. Among the 130 girls examined only 7 were found excellent; five of them were younger than 14 years, and 2 were between 15 and 17.

### Special Vocational Training.

The city school boards judged these gifted boys and girls to be fully worthy of special advancement and took immediate steps to place them in training adapted to their gifts. Means for this purpose was provided where it was lacking. In the second group, namely, those who ranked slightly below excellent, there were 46 boys and 11 girls whom the examiners judged to be well fitted for training in some industrial vocation with art features. In a further group of 31 boys and 1 girl, the judges saw great promise of future achievements in technical art. In the remaining group of 161 boys and 111 girls the art gifts were not sufficiently developed to warrant the choice of work of this character, though, clearly, these too would be able to do good work in selected trades.

These examinations have prepared the way for a comprehensive plan to be carried on at the close of every semester, viz, to conduct three separate examinations of gifted pupils, one of a purely scientific character, one technical, and one artistic.

### Similar Schools in Hamburg.

A similar movement in Hamburg, started in 1918 to facilitate transfer from

the folk schools to the secondary schools, led to special examinations of gifted pupils with the view of promoting them according to the ability with which they were able to advance, and particularly to guide their individual gifts. The design of the entire plan which was kept steadily in mind was to avoid both half-way measures and the hazard of experiment, to open a road for every gifted pupil and to obviate an exclusively academic direction in their development.

Dr. Umlauf, who was in charge of the selections, saw the necessity of help from the psychologists. He received the aid of the psychology division of the educational department of the newly founded University of Hamburg, and with that assistance devised a program of intelligence tests which is now being perfected to serve the new trend in the promotion of pupils.

#### Elsewhere in Germany Also.

Begabten Schulen are being established not only in Berlin and Hamburg but in several other parts of Germany. All are at present passing through a stage of experimentation. There is unanimity in the desire to shorten the period for attaining the Maturitätsexamen in guiding the pupils into intellectual or technical courses according to adaptation, and in providing the same opportunities to all classes without prejudice or privilege. There is, however, a difference in the devices employed in the promotions.

#### Variety in the Process of Selection.

The Berlin system of selection is the most direct, but, according to its critics, it is crude. Without any general preliminary sifting its Begabten Schulen are a select superstructure to the folk school, with the aim of meeting local needs but lacking the comprehensive basis upon which to build reform of the entire educational system. In Mannheim and Kiel the processes of selection are the most consistent: Selected pupils advance from the general folk school into test classes, and after further sifting are promoted to the advanced schools. Mannheim has transition classes of a year and a half for pupils who have already passed the first tests. In Kiel, the selection procedures continue during the three upper folk school classes, the three middle school classes, then probationary classes for the gifted; and finally those who pass entrance tests are admitted to the Untersekunda. The Kiel system lays stress on the quality and amount of work to be exacted from gifted pupils rather than on abridging the time required for the leaving examinations.

The one feature of the movement upon which attention converges at present is to find a satisfactory method of selection.

Individual teachers as well as associations are taking it up as a problem.

#### To Acquaint Teachers with Methods.

The Stettin Union of Educational Workers has conducted a series of lectures acquainting its members with the theory and its application. Two introductory lectures preceded the general course—one on intelligence tests and one on psychological observations. Other topics taken up were: The meaning of gifted; Intelligence tests; The law of errors and correlatives; Psychotechnics; Sociology of the gifted; Biology in its relation to special gifts.

Out of discussion and experiment it is hoped that an eclectic compilation of the most usable test methods and a schedule for recording observations will be developed.

Such records of observation have been published in Hamburg for the use of teachers who cooperate with the psychologists in selecting specially-endowed pupils for continued education. The form of the first outlines has been modified so as to incorporate later conclusions. The form used in 1919 contains questions and suggestions converging on the following characteristics:

(1) Adaptation; (2) attention; (3) susceptibility to fatigue; (4) perception and power of observation; (5) memory; (6) imagination; (7) thinking ability; (8) expression through language; (9) mode of work; (10) disposition and will; (11) special interests and talents.

#### Results Due to Individual Initiative.

Touching the Begabten Schule movement as it appears early in 1920, the excellent results that are likely to follow will be to the credit of individual initiative and not to the activity of any State officials. Public spirited educational leaders cooperating with German psychologists secured the good will of the school authorities in Berlin and elsewhere and had their conceptions transmuted into act. In each center the movement is still colored by the psychological viewpoint of its founder—in Berlin, Moede-Piorkowski; in Hamburg, Stern; in Sehneburg, Lipmann; in Breslau, Mazn; in Gottingen, Kampfe.

During the present unsettled state of social and educational affairs, the Begabten Schule idea is maintaining itself and gaining recognition. Not only is it being generally indorsed by teachers, organizations but its principles as part of the German constitution were adopted with less opposition than any other clause of the school enactments.

A teacher in distress is a poor teacher, whether the distress is due to low wages or to an arbitrary school board.—P. H. Pearson.

## PUPILS' TRAVEL BUREAUS IN SWEDEN.

### School Excursions Are Extensively Conducted in Northern and Central Europe.

Excursions of pupils which were much in vogue before the war are again conducted and on a much larger scale than formerly. During the summer vacation many of the school buildings are opened as "travel bureaus." The seats and desks are moved out or placed out of the way, and the schoolhouse is equipped as a pupils' hotel. "Folkeskolen" reports that an arrangement like the following has been found satisfactory: A certain schoolroom in Stockholm is furnished with 22 cots, mattresses, pillows, and blankets, and 6 washbasins. These arrangements accommodate a group of 20 pupils, with the 2 teachers in charge. Towels and sheets are brought by the travelers themselves.

Every school in the cities is furnished with a school kitchen. Permission is given to the travelers to use this and the cooking utensils in preparing breakfast. The midday meal is taken at some of the inexpensive, and yet very good, hotels that are found at all principal points. All arrangements are made beforehand, so that each bureau and hotel knows when every party is to arrive.

Boys and girls travel separately. If the trip is short it is made on foot; if longer, the boys use bicycles. Trips to more distant parts requiring 10 days or 2 weeks are made by rail or steamboat. It is always possible to get very much reduced rates for a school excursion. Pupils from different countries visit each other in this way; the present season will bring pupils together from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Holland, and Germany.

### CHILD INSURANCE IN SWITZERLAND.

A system of child insurance has been adopted by the Cantons of Geneva, Aargau, Solothurn, and Zürich. As the field is new and obscure, each Canton is trying to discover the regulations regionally best adapted. Evidently the insurance should be obligatory; it should be placed on a sufficiently broad basis and be made independent of politics, church connections, and school authorities. Perhaps an educational or economic element can be imparted by paying the premium in part from the proceeds of work done by the children, such as garden tillage and the like.



## UNIVERSITY LIFE IN BERLIN.

### Aid of British Quakers Necessary to Enable Half the Students to Remain.

Only 40 per cent of students at the University of Berlin have more than 300 marks a month for their total expenditures—about \$7.50 at the present rate of exchange. Out of that sum they have to feed and clothe themselves in addition to paying for rooms. If it were not for the Society of Friends (British Quakers) who are serving these students meals for a nominal price of 1 mark 50 pfennigs the number of students would be reduced by nearly one-half.

The University of Berlin, like every institution of higher learning in Germany, is a hotbed of militarism. As the middle class is gradually being wiped out, the students are among the greatest sufferers. They are anxious to rid Germany of its radicals, whom they blame for their present plight.

The old type of German university student, with his smart corps uniform, scarred face, and 20-seidel capacity has disappeared. The typical "college boy" in the German Republic is a thin, undernourished, shabbily dressed youth and lacks spending money.

The head porter at the Hotel Adlon makes more in a month than the chancellor of the University of Berlin receives in a year.—*Karl K. Kitchin, in New York World.*

## WILL FRANCE DISCARD THE CLASSICS?

### Suggestions From a Professor Which Have Been Considered Heresy Not Long Ago.

Educational thought in France does not intend to discard the classics, but it shows a tendency to reweigh them. The latest evidence of this is the fact that the *Revue Universitaire*, an ardent supporter of classicism in education, in a recent number, gives prominence to the article, *L'enseignement du latin*, by M. L. Clédat, a professor at the University of Lyon, who says things which sound daringly radical in a Frenchman and a professor. He advocates the reduction of the number of pupils taking up Latin, arguing for (1) "l'élimination des inaptes," inasmuch as three out of every four who are put to Latin in the French schools are, in his opinion, unfit for it, and soon show their unfitness; (2) the improvement of instruction in the language which has deteriorated from the crude attempts to ap-

ply the direct method; and (3) the deliberate specialization in training of those who are to teach Latin. They should be "latinistes par gout, par vocation, par métier." The elimination of the unfit is to be applied to teachers as well as pupils.

Such advocacy of cutting down compulsory, or even allowed, Latin stirs up a good many questions. As for natural aptitude, how would the boys of other countries and races fare in comparison? Any better?

Historically, the cutting down might find justification, when it is remembered that the overwhelming vogue of Latin after the Renaissance rested largely upon the idea that the modern languages were essentially vulgar, and that Latin was and of right ought to be the international medium for scholars and diplomatists. The French are beginning, tentatively, to question if Latin and Greek are the best disciplines for the human intellect, an educational phenomenon of high significance when we consider how large a part Latin has played in the literary and educational foundation of the French since the sixteenth century.

## DANISH SCHOOLS IN SCHLESWIG.

### Efforts to Revive National Feeling in People Long Under Alien Repression.

Two teachers' seminaries will be established, one in Haderslev and one in Tønder, and both will be organized as State seminaries. With the view to speedy and complete amalgamation of interests, prospective teachers in the recently acquired territories are encouraged to attend teachers' training schools in other parts of Denmark; from old Denmark teachers are advised to go to the seminaries of Schleswig. Such interchange of pupils will make the folklore and folk spirit in all parts of the kingdom a more truly national element. Danish folk consciousness is more fully developed in the older parts of the nation than it can possibly be in Schleswig, long under alien repression. Folk life and folk views on the border district, where two strata meet, are especially interesting. Here, moreover, are special opportunities for acquiring one of the world languages. In this respect Tønder is ideal; hence the establishment of one of the teachers' seminaries here. In regard to the German teachers that have held positions in the acquired districts, the Danish authorities contemplate the retention of those who have not been offensively partisan.

## THE AMERICAN AND THE SWEDEN.

### The Contrast Between National Characteristics Described by a School Official.

An American has a strong feeling of personal responsibility and independence which prompts him always to stand on his own feet, to put in his best effort for advancement, to make the most of what he attempts, to avoid being "sold for a penny." To a stranger he appears to boast and bluster; he is always his own confident self, exerting himself to the utmost for success, and fully deserving it when it comes.

In these very respects we do not measure up. Our well-meant care in looking after our people has led us to favor weakness too much. I mean weakness of will, which needs the pressure of poverty and distress to rouse to exertion. The individual has become too much accustomed to depend on some one else, on other individuals, the State, the community, trade unions, or welfare organizations.

It is well that we take care of the sick and helpless, the infirm, the aged and others, but it is possible to do too much in this direction, and too much is done when the individual is relieved from the necessity of depending on himself, or when he is too indolent to use his abilities to the utmost.

Too few appreciate independence, the kind of independence that is won through hard work and thrift. Too many cry for help and protection without realizing that they are thereby confessing their own weakness.

You young Swedes in the schools are the elect; may your example infuse strength and stamina into the nation, that laxity and indifference may not weaken its fiber. May Sweden through you escape crutches and dependence on the grace of others. And as I wish you good luck and successful continuance, I urge you not to quit your work when it is half finished.—*Prof. Nils Fredrickson, in Dagens Nyheter, of Stockholm.*

## LIKE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

In the contemplated reorganization in Norway, a point in dispute is whether the middle school should follow the fifth year of the folk school or the finishing year, the seventh. The Storting insists that the middle school must not break into the unfinished course of the folk school, for this must be the foundation for all superstructures. Funds will be supplied only to middle school based on the seven-year folk school.

## SCHOOL LIFE

Issued by the United States Bureau of Education.

Department of the Interior.

Editor, JAMES C. BOYKIN.

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## RECREATION AND RURAL HEALTH.

### Bureau of Education Publication Holds That Country People Require More Play.

In all countries the best schools for adolescent boys and girls have embodied free play and games as an important part of their programs. Through such plays and games all the powers of youth can be most freely cultivated and the spirit of youth most abundantly continued through the years of adult manhood and womanhood. There is in this country special need for recreation and educational plays in the rural schools. To assist toward the introduction of such plays in these schools the Bureau of Education has published a report on "Recreation and rural health," recently made to the Second National Country Life Conference by E. C. Lindeman, chairman of the conference committee on recreation and rural health. The document is designated as Teachers' Leaflet No. 7 and is now ready for distribution.

Some of the conclusions reached are as follows:

"Notwithstanding the fact that farm work provides for an abundance of physical exercise in the open air, observation seems to indicate that:

"(a) Farm boys and girls do not develop symmetrically.

"(b) The work of the farm seems to overdevelop the major or fundamental muscles, while the finer or accessory muscles are neglected.

"(c) Farm life in general does not produce a degree of mental alertness and neuromuscular coordination essential to an enthusiastic and optimistic outlook on life.

"(d) Observations with farm-reared young men seem to indicate that the foregoing conclusions are at least partially correct because of the relatively more

rapid approach of fatigue when placed on a comparative basis with young men of the cities."

Since farm boys and girls do not appear to be lacking in size or in weight, and since the apparent malformation seems to be due to an overdevelopment of certain of the major muscles at the expense of the finer muscles, it seems logical to conclude that the following types of recreation are needed: (a) Games which involve the free use of the entire body; (b) games which require precision of action; (c) games employing the expression of the rhythmic instinct; (d) games which involve cooperative action; (e) games which involve attention, or the use of the higher nerve centers; (f) games which are mentally exhilarating.

Mr. Lindeman cites the various agencies of national character which either have definite health-recreation programs or are contemplating such programs, presents the requirements for a good game for the rural community, and gives a list of 30 selected games that have proved valuable in rural recreation.

According to the latest report from the American University Union, more than 2,000 American students, representing 25 States, are attending French universities this year.

## AMERICAN EDUCATION SUPERFICIAL.

The most striking weakness of American political, social, and economic thinking lies in the superficial character of our education. In our public schools, and, no less in our universities and colleges, education is interpreted only too often to mean a smattering of knowledge in many things; seldom is it construed in terms of mastery of any one subject or as the ability to think clearly. Our schools reflect the almost universal superficiality of our people, and our citizenship is educated to the ideal of superficiality in our schools. There is no end of these mutual reactions except an aroused public opinion that will demand sincere teaching and a body of teachers who will educate the children of the Nation to the ideals of simplicity, sincerity, and thoroughness. An honest system of education and a clear-thinking public opinion must be developed together. This is the fundamental problem of a democracy.—Henry S. Pritchett.

## UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION.

### The Number of States with the County Unit Is Increasing.

Twenty States now have the county-unit system of local school administration, according to data collected by the Bureau of Education. In two others the adoption of the county system is made optional with the several counties, and in three others some elements of the system have made their appearance. The following classification is made in the Bureau:

**County unit, strong form.**—Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Georgia (four counties), Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah.

**County unit, weaker form.**—Arizona, Arkansas, California, Georgia (except in four counties), Mississippi, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and Washington.

**County unit, optional.**—Montana and Nebraska (otherwise district system).

**Township unit.**—Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, and West Virginia.

**Part of State district system, part township.**—Iowa, Michigan, and South Dakota.

**District unit.**—Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New York, Oklahoma, Oregon, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

In the States classified as having the county unit in "weaker form," the system is in reality a combination of the county and district systems; and in States having the "strong form," the district is in most cases left with some functions. Iowa, Oregon, and Wisconsin have made beginnings with the county system. In this classification, West Virginia is placed under the head of township unit. As a matter of fact, the unit of administration in that State is the "magisterial district," which is similar in area to the "town" in New England or the township in Pennsylvania and other States having like units with irregular boundaries.

## VISITING STUDENTS IN BOLIVIA.

In Bolivia a body of visiting students has been organized to act under the direction of the inspector general of primary instruction. Each of these students will be sent to a certain school district of the country and will send in semiannual reports to the inspector general.



## NATURAL SCIENCE TEACHING.

Report of the British Prime Minister's Committee Reprinted by Bureau of Education.

That there should be a thorough re-adaptation of the popular and official attitudes prevailing in Great Britain toward the teaching of natural science, and the consequent universal incorporation of scientific study as an essential subject in all branches of British education is the conclusion reached by the committee appointed by the Prime Minister to inquire into the position of natural science in Great Britain.

An abridgment of the report has been published by the United States Bureau of Education and is now ready for distribution. Its title is *Natural Science Teaching in Great Britain*, Bulletin, 1919, No. 63.

In Great Britain, as in all the other countries allied against the Central Empires, the war had from its very beginning disclosed the tragic inadequacy of the traditional scientific instruction given in the schools. Even while the issue of the conflict seemed to threaten the very existence of the British Empire, this committee began its activities, and reported after 18 months of intense study of the subject in all its phases.

### Committee of Able Men.

The committee commanded respect from the eminence of its personnel. It consisted of 17 men and women, eminent in the scientific life of the nation, with Sir J. J. Thomson, Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, as chairman.

The terms of reference, so far from restricting the committee to academic and administrative details, prescribed a statesmanlike viewpoint for the entire investigation: "Regard must be had to the requirements of a liberal education, to the advancement of pure science, and to the interests of the trades, industries, and professions which particularly depend upon allied sciences."

Following the terms of reference, the formulators of the report felt themselves bound to take up first the consideration of the position of science in secondary schools and universities as being that which would most quickly revolutionize the Nation's thought.

### Popularize Scientific Study.

After reviewing the present situation held by scientific instruction in secondary schools, grant-earning, public and preparatory, and private, and in the en-

tire field of girls' schools in England, the report presents a number of excellent recommendations for reorganization and popularizing of scientific studies as related to them. It advocates the inclusion of science in the general course of education for all pupils in public and other secondary schools up to the age of about 16, with increase of regular periods devoted to that subject; increased attention to the teaching of science in girls' schools, with not less than three hours out of a 24-hour school week devoted to science for girls from 12 to 16; the establishment in suitable localities of school or schools where less time should be devoted to languages and additional time to English, science, mathematics, manual instruction, and drawing. The report urges the introduction of practical work into the curriculum as offering unparalleled opportunity for discovering ability. As one witness testified: "Often, very often, the dunce of the form, when put onto practical work, becomes brilliant."

This recommendation, it should be said, has been put into execution in the continuation schools provided for in the education act of 1918, and, under the supervision of the board of education, in process of actual establishment by the local education authorities throughout England.

### Content of Secondary Course.

As regards actual content of the course for secondary pupils from 12 to 16, it is recommended that it should include physics, chemistry, some study of plant and animal life, with increased attention to the every-day aspects of the sciences, close correlation between mathematics and science, and continuous stress laid on the accurate use of the English language.

For pupils from 16 to 18, it is recommended that the pupil be required to specialize in certain subjects, with the expenditure of time not less than one-half and not more than two-thirds of the school week, with concomitant literary study for those specializing in science, and conversely, appropriate science work for those specializing in literary studies.

As a result of such readjustment of secondary studies, it is recommended that 18 be the normal age of entry to universities, with reduction of the age limit for entrance scholarships at the two ancient universities to 18 years.

Such readjustment also brings with it the necessity of training special teachers for secondary schools. The report recommends substantial improvement in the salaries and prospects of such teachers, a pension system, a full year's training shared between school and university, and the provision of short courses of training of various types.

## INTERNATIONAL MEET OF BOY SCOUTS.

Scouts from All the World Will Gather in London for Sports and Serious Exercises.

Boy Scouts will meet in international convention in London from July 30 to August 7. Especial attention is to be devoted by the leaders and promoters of the great gathering to the use of the Boy Scout movement for teaching citizenship and civic duties and responsibilities. In addition to competition in all forms of sport by teams from all countries, a program of serious exercises is set which will conform to the general plan of bringing home to the individual boy his position not only as a member of the community but also as a potential citizen of his own country and of the civilized world. This side of the meet is dwelt upon by the founder of the movement, Sir Robert Baden-Powell, in the official handbook, *Boy Scout and Citizenship*. He points out that the meet with its representative scouts from the different nations will furnish a striking object lesson of a real League of Nations, founded on sympathy and mutual understanding, and that it surely can not fail to have a permanent effect.

Delegations of American boys, representing many of the principal cities, have signified their intention of participating; and American scout authorities are expecting great advantage from sharing in world-wide conferences in which ethics, as well as material things, will be considered and discussed.

## TEACHERS STRIKE IN HOLLAND.

Great dissatisfaction with their compensation prevails among the teachers of Holland. According to a telegram from Rotterdam to the press of Sweden, about 600 teachers have gone on a strike. It is feared that the strike will soon cover the entire country. The strikes are conducted according to a uniform method. The teachers appear at the schools and occupy themselves with the children but do not teach them.

A vacation colony for weak children was inaugurated last March in Argentina by the municipal treasury, according to the Bulletin of the Pan American Union. Accommodations are made for 165 children, and instruction is given in deportment, morals, physical culture, and gardening.

## ***The Work-Study-Play Plan Of School Organization***

### ***Report of an Important Investigation by the Commerce Club of Toledo, Ohio.***

During the past six months two committees of the commerce club of Toledo, Ohio, have conducted an examination of the housing needs of the elementary and high-school divisions of the Toledo public schools. The combined report of these two committees is now before the Toledo Board of Education.

In the course of the inquiry the work-study-play plan of school organization, now employed in some or all of the schools of 30 or more cities, was investigated. The discussion of this plan and the comments of those in authority where the plan has been tried constitute a valuable contribution. It is particularly timely now that many cities are seriously considering means for relieving buildings which have become greatly overcrowded. This section of the commerce club's report is published because of its general interest:

#### **Application of Old Commercial Idea.**

The duplicate use of school equipment is the application by the school management of a principle which has long been recognized and practiced as good business by all other public-service institutions. For example, our transportation system would be impossible if all who are obliged to travel should demand transportation at exactly the same time. Theaters make their programs available to many people because when one person is not using a seat it may be used by another. Hotels in serving the public do not attempt to reserve a certain room throughout the year for each particular patron. Similarly, industries do not hesitate to have different sets of men use the same machines and shop space at different intervals of the day when the constant use of the machine is needed to produce a certain output which is in demand.

#### **Same Equipment Serves Three Pupils.**

By applying the same principle to public-school equipment, school managements have come to realize, largely as a matter of necessity, that it is not always necessary to reserve a seat for every school child throughout the year. Further, the demand for training in the industrial, home, and musical arts and the urgent need for education in matters of health and physical training have called forth a new and expensive type of school equipment. To utilize both kinds of equipment more fully, the plan for making a duplicate use of equipment has been devised. Thus, by dividing a school into

two sections, while one section is in the regular classrooms studying academic subjects, such as arithmetic, language, reading, history, and geography, the other section is divided into three divisions, one being assigned to the shops for the study of science, industrial, and home arts, another to the auditorium for the study of musical, dramatic, and social arts, and the third to the playground and gymnasium, for organized play and physical training. When one section has studied in the classrooms for two successive periods it goes to the shops, auditorium, and playground for special work and play, and the other section goes to the classrooms. By this plan each section between 8.30 a. m. and 4.30 p. m. studies academic subjects in the classroom for four 50-minute periods, has special instruction and activities for an equal length of time, and one hour for lunch. Under the present plan of reserving a seat for each child, the children get an equal amount of academic instruction, two 10-minute recesses for play, a few minutes for opening exercises in the auditorium, and very little time for special activities.

#### **Called "Work-Study-Play Plan."**

As children give a certain period of the school day to actual work, study, and play, the plan is commonly called the "work-study-play plan" of school organization.

This plan of school organization is a distinct departure from the old traditional plan, and although it does not offer a ready solution to the problem of providing needed school facilities it affords relief in this respect and also the possibilities of a much enriched educational program. While it would not be advisable to adopt it in a large way at once the advantages of the plan seem to offset its disadvantages to such an extent that it deserves not only careful consideration but a fair trial in Toledo.

It is the opinion of those who have had experience with both plans of organization that the operating cost is about the same in each case. The following pages give briefly a summary of information gathered from the correspondence carried on with superintendents of schools who have had experience with both plans of school organization:

#### **Opinions of School Superintendents.**

*Assistant Supt. Packer, Detroit, Mich.*—The plan is in operation in 16 schools this year, and is to be used in 30 schools next

year. A complete discussion of Detroit's experience with the work-study-play plan of school organization to be given in the May number of Detroit Board of Education Research Bulletin.

*Supt. E. H. Drake, Kalamazoo, Mich.*—The regular teacher has two groups of children, and is obliged to adjust to a larger number than under the traditional plan. Each pupil has a regular teacher and five special teachers, whereas under the other plan the pupil has one teacher and only occasionally a special teacher.

It is more difficult to adjust the schedule, as the periods are necessarily of equal length, and a longer time than is necessary is given to subjects like music and penmanship for the lower grades.

Under the traditional plan it is much easier to adjust the schedule, to keep the records accurately and to keep the pupils' attendance in every class.

#### **Greater Confusion but More Interest.**

The changing conditions of the work-study-play plan tend to make school more interesting for the average pupil and the exercise that comes from the more frequent change, although small in quantity, is a relief and benefit. It is a disadvantage for children who do not adjust easily to changing conditions.

It causes greater confusion in the building than is caused by the traditional plan. As the regular teacher is responsible for the teaching of fewer subjects she therefore can make better preparation.

She is also free from the teaching of such subjects as music and art which may be distasteful to her and for which she is not well prepared.

In such subjects as music, art, manual and domestic arts, and physical training it gives the advantage of well-trained teachers.

It gives the pupil a richer school program, in that teachers can concentrate the more on their respective lines and bring to bear better information in these lines.

The plan is especially strong in providing ample opportunity for physical education.

*Supt. Drake says:* "We prefer to limit the work of this plan to children of grades three to six, inclusive. Below grade three the work is more closely articulated with the kindergarten and is done by teachers on the regular or traditional plan of organization. Above the sixth grade we have the junior high school and senior high school work, all of which is on departmental lines."



**Reduces Cost in Passaic.**

*Supt. Fred S. Shepherd, Passaic, N. J.*—Supt. Shepherd presented data showing the per capita cost per student hour for the average number belonging to the traditional schools at Passaic to be \$0.045, as compared with \$0.034 for the schools operating under the work-study-play plan and for the average number of attendance \$0.047 as compared with \$0.037. For the per capita annual cost reduced to a five-hour basis, it was \$40.09 on the average number belonging for the traditional plan, as compared with \$30.77 for the work-study-play plan. On the average daily attendance \$42.51 as compared with \$32.73.

Mr. Shepherd says: "In our new work-study-play school, opened September 18, we are accommodating 42 classes. There we have two gymnasiums, swimming pool, two music rooms, two drawing rooms, a general science room, a room for cooking and sewing and dressmaking for the girls, and four workshops for boys, including a textile shop, woodworking shop, machine shop, and printing shop. We have also a moving-picture machine. These facilities would be prohibitive added to the traditional school organization."

He holds that the organization is economical in both time and space, and it saves on capital investment by reducing the number of classrooms needed and on overhead charges attending such additional capital investment. Such saving on overhead charges is due the school for operating expenses. He also is of the opinion that the work should not be departmentalized below the third and possibly the fourth grade.

Mr. Shepherd further summed up briefly some of the advantages of the plan as follows:

1. An enriched program at little or no additional expense per capita for operating.

2. A longer school day, though as we are organized here I should say there is no more time for study in that sort of a school than in the traditional school.

**Individual Initiative Better Developed.**

3. More opportunity for the development of individual initiative and leadership, or, in other words, for the development of self-reliance, independence, resourcefulness, and judgment.

4. A more flexible program permitting in the seventh and eighth grades, at least, promotion by subject.

5. On account of the departmentalized plan, teachers become specialists, and, therefore, more skilled in the teaching of the subject they teach.

6. Such a school gives the children a much wider range of experience, espe-

cially in large manufacturing cities where opportunity to do things is not so great as in the country.

As to the administrative end, he says that the machinery is more intricate and requires more administrators if the school is run well.

*Supt. Ira T. Chapman, New Brunswick, N. J.*—The work in the school using the modified form of work-study-play plan checks very favorably with the other schools which are less crowded. It has been adopted in one school only because of overcrowded conditions.

**Success Depends on Teachers.**

*Supt. Benj. G. Graham, New Castle, Pa.*—It has a marked advantage over the

traditional school organization because of the freedom it gives children during play and work periods of the program. He says the success of the plan depends upon ability to secure teachers properly trained to do the special teaching which the plan requires.

*Supt. George E. Mark, Sewickley, Pa.*—The plan provides for a more enriched school program than is possible under the old line school organization at less cost. It also very satisfactorily adapts itself to a social aim of education.

*Supt. C. W. Washburne, Winnetka, Ill.*—The plan enables the use of science laboratories, manual training, and domestic science rooms continuously as seen

**The work-study-play plan in some cities.**

City and State.	Estimated population in 1918.	Number of schools operating under plan.	Attitude of superintendent to plan.	Special remarks.
Winnetka, Ill.	5,000	All on modified form.	Favorable.	Effects saving in capital investment, enriches school program, and makes possible the employment of competent, trained departmental teachers.
Detroit, Mich.	850,000	16 this year, 30 next year; modified form.	do.	Adjusts plans to facilities of particular buildings. Teachers enthusiastic about plan. Increases seating capacity of building from 16 to 40 per cent. Used in third to sixth grades, inclusive. Junior and senior high schools, all on departmentalized plan.
Kalamazoo, Mich.	50,000	All on modified form.	do.	
Minneapolis, Minn.	416,000	2 elementary, as emergency measure.	Prefer traditional plan.	
Bayonne, N. J.	70,000	2 elementary in modified form, as emergency measure.	do.	
Newark, N. J.	450,000	9	Favorable.	Has decided advantages over traditional plan which more than offset disadvantages. Teachers having had 1 year of successful experience in these schools receive a bonus of 5 per cent.
New Brunswick, N. J.	38,000	1 in modified form; platoon plan.	do.	Accommodates 16 sections of pupils to space usually assigned to 13 groups, or increases capacity 23 per cent.
Passaic, N. J.	70,000	2	do.	Average per capita annual cost reduced to 5-hour basis for all schools is \$42.51 for traditional schools as compared with \$32.73 for work-study-play plan schools.
Schenectady, N. Y.	108,000	1 in greatly modified form.	Favors traditional plan.	
New York City, N. Y.		None	do.	Was tried out under Mayor Mitchel's administration of New York City. School conditions were then made a political issue and present city administration elected on a platform opposed to work-study-play plan.
Troy, N. Y.	80,000	1 in modified form.	Favorable.	Satisfied with plan. Children get greater advantages than old type of school.
Rochester, N. Y.	300,000	3 in modified form.	Favors in a conservative way.	Work has been successful to date. Present indications are that it will be extended rather than reduced.
New Castle, Pa.	36,000	4	Favorable.	Considered a marked improvement over traditional plan. Success depends upon the securing of teachers properly trained to do the special teaching which this type of school demands.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	504,000	6	do.	Will extend the use of the plan.
Sewickley, Pa.	6,000	All for 8 years.	do.	Has decided advantages over traditional plan.
Swarthmore, Pa.	3,000	All for 8 years; modified form.	do.	Very complete school equipment and program; per pupil cost \$97.87.
El Paso, Tex.	77,000	Tried out by previous superintendents, in modified form; in none this year.		Worked fairly well in 3 schools; is not regarded with enthusiasm by the general body of teachers.

sion rooms, whereas they can be used but a small per cent of the time under the traditional plan.

It requires fewer regular teachers for academic work, but more special teachers than the traditional plan. It makes possible the employment of full time specially trained departmental teachers for each school without increasing the total number of teachers, whereas under the traditional plan the services of full time specially trained departmental teachers must be divided among several schools.

It provides a means of using physical training and playground facilities throughout the day by session groups. Thus a comparatively small equipment serves the entire school, whereas under the traditional plan the playground facilities are usually found inadequate due to the fact that all of the school children use them at the same time.

#### Unsuccessful in New York.

*Supt. Wm. L. Ettinger, New York City.*—It is generally conceded that the double-session schools, as Mr. Wirt tried to operate them, under New York conditions (which were outstandingly political) were unsuccessful.

*Supt. E. R. Whitney, Schenectady, N. Y.*—It is a plan devised to save money at the expense of the teacher by loading more work on the teacher, decreasing her efficiency and lowering her spontaneity and animation.

*Supt. Arvie Eldred, Troy, N. Y.*—I am satisfied with the plan as tried out in one of my schools. I believe the children get more advantages in the school operating on this plan than on the old type of school.

*Supt. Herbert S. Weet, Rochester, N. Y.*—It makes a much more serious demand upon the energy of the teacher than does the usual single type of school organization. On the other hand it means the offering of educational advantages which simply can not be given under the usual type of school organization.

*Supt. H. Chalmers Stuart, Swarthmore, Pa.*—It requires the supervision of a great number of details which, if overlooked, permits pupils too much freedom and will cause the bunching of study periods and classes. Teachers must be in entire accord. It is necessary either to win their entire support or discharge them before attempting the plan.

#### Recommendation.

The committee therefore recommends that the board of education consider the merits of the work-study-play plan of school organization and give it a fair trial. This would mean that it should be begun in one school only and by a corps of teachers who not only are thoroughly in sympathy with the plan, but who by training are qualified for the particular work they are to perform.

## COL. AYRES ENTERS DENIAL.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

130 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK CITY.

LEONARD P. AYRES, *Director.*

July 17, 1920.

MY DEAR DR. CLAXTON:

In "School Life" for July 1 there appears an editorial article dealing with my recent monograph, "An Index Number for State School Systems," published by the Russell Sage Foundation. The title of the article is "An Important Omission."

The article is based on four statements. In the first place, it alleges that my monograph failed to state that the figures used for school population were estimates. The second statement is that these estimated data for school population are in many cases seriously inaccurate and that this is proved by the new census data for the District of Columbia which are now available. The third statement in the article is that Montana owes its first place in my ranking of the states to the use of inaccurate data for school population, and that if accurate data had been used the state would be several degrees removed from the top of the list. The last of these four statements is that the estimated figures for school population are not accurate enough for precise comparisons and that their use vitiates the entire work in its application to individual states.

I take exception to all four of these statements in this editorial. I did not make the important omission, as the editorial writer alleges, of failing to state that the figures for school population were estimates. I called them computations, and I specifically stated in the monograph that each new set of census reports made possible the correction of these computations. This is the first and most important point that I wish to make. It is that the important omission on which the article was based was not in fact made.

The editorial goes on to cite the case of the District of Columbia as one in which the figures of the new census indicate that the previous computations of the Census Office as to school population gave results smaller than they should have been, and from this the editor draws the conclusion that the ratios in the index number based on these results were excessively high.

It is true that the city of Washington increased in population with great rapidity during the war, and that this increase was too rapid to conform to the ordinary Census Office processes of computing the probable increase of population in the ten year periods between censuses. It is not true that parallel conditions were found in any of the states, nor do the differences between the computed population and the actual war time population affect the index number in any such degree as the author of the editorial suggests. If the number of children of school age increased in Washington during the war as rapidly as the editorial alleges that they did, and if these data are substituted for the census computations in the methods employed in my index number ratings, the District of Columbia would

change just one place in rank in its final standing. This fact is of large importance. It indicates that the method of the index number possesses such a degree of stability as to be only in a minor measure affected in its final results by even so phenomenal and unforeseen a change in the population of a district as that which took place in Washington during the war.

The third statement of the editorial is that if accurate figures for school population had been used for Montana that state would be several degrees removed from the top of the list in the final index number. This is a matter easily tested and the results of the test do not substantiate the charge. If we substitute in the case of Montana such ratios of school population as are found in several of the other states, we find that Montana still maintains first place. It will hardly be claimed that any phenomenal changes of population have occurred in Indiana during the past decade, but, if we substitute the Indiana ratio of school population for that employed in the case of Montana, the rank of the latter state remains unchanged, and its index number is still in first place. The same is true if we use the California, or Wyoming, or Hawaii figures instead of those of Indiana.

The comments that have been made cover the fourth statement of the editorial to the effect that there has been an alleged omission and oversight which vitiates the entire work of the monograph in its application to individual states. Precise statements as to the changes in data that may be involved, when the results of the new census are available, can not be made at this time, but it is entirely clear and easily demonstrable that any changes which may be necessary in the data for school population will have a very minor effect on the index number, and that they will in no sense vitiate the present results.

In closing I would summarize as follows: In the first place, the alleged omission was not made. In the second place, the method of the index number is so stable that even the phenomenal changes in the population of Washington during the war affect the rating of the District of Columbia in only minor degree. In the third place, the evidence indicates that with corrected data for Montana the rank of that state would remain unchanged. In the fourth place, the evidence does not indicate that the use of the census estimates for school population vitiates the index number in its application to individual states. On the contrary the evidence indicates that the use of the new figures that may be computed on the basis of the 1920 census will involve changes in the index ratings that will be very small indeed.

Sincerely, yours,

LEONARD P. AYRES.

DR. P. P. CLAXTON,  
*Commissioner of Education,  
Washington, D. C.*

The International Association of Rotary Clubs, at its eleventh annual convention in Atlantic City, went on record as favoring an increase of teachers' salaries, and universal physical education in the schools. Twelve thousand delegates from 17 nations were present.



## ECONOMIC CONDITIONS THREATEN HEALTH.

**Paper So High That Slates Are Suggested in London, But Strongly Opposed.**

The cost of paper is rising so rapidly that the London education authorities are alarmed over their school stationery accounts. To the tentative suggestion in certain quarters that the children return to the old-fashioned slate, the English educational journals register emphatic protest. "In the view of some careful observers," says the Educational Journal, "nothing did more to spread disease in the schools than the use of the slate, and what might be saved through the saving of paper might easily be lost in the health of the children. In these days the health of children is much more the concern of the local authorities than it was twenty or thirty years ago, and it seems necessary to utter a word of warning."

## CZECHOSLOVAK TEACHERS CONVENE.

The first congress of the teachers of the Czechoslovak Republic met at Prague, Bohemia, on July 1 to 3 to discuss problems relating to the modern school and education in general. The program was as follows: Democracy in school education; freedom of instruction at the foundation of all culture; training of teachers at the university; social and economic position of teachers; the program of the international work of teachers. Invitations to be present at the congress were extended to the educational authorities of foreign countries by Adolf V. Obst, president of the Teachers' Union in Bohemia.

## EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

(Continued from page 2.)

the Viviani bill of 1917, which outlined a project of adolescent education. There is prospect of its passage at an early date. Here again is an effect of the English education bill. On many points it parallels the main provisions of that bill, being a scheme for continuation education for males from 13 to 20 and for females from 13 to 18, adapted by local communes to local needs. It leads to a certificate based upon certifying examinations, which is to be necessary in order to secure employment by the State.

In the meantime, pending the passage of the Viviani bill or similar legislation

for higher primary education, the need of systematic and adequate means of developing an educational élite is most urgently felt. All educational thinkers call attention to the fact that only from the primary field can the recruits necessary for a completely democratic system of national legislation be secured; that only in the higher division of it can choice be justified by normal exhibition of unusual powers of intelligence; and that any choice of pupils upon the basis of unusual mental abilities and promise is unsafe before the children have reached the higher primary grade.

### Economic Pressure and the Primary Teacher.

In France, as in all the other countries of the civilized world, the primary teacher has suffered by reason of the economic pressure; and higher remuneration in other lines has drawn such teachers in great numbers away from teaching. The authorities frankly recognize that it is doubtful if many will return. At the same time, the educational authorities hope that the provisions of the new salary scale will contribute to remove much of the unrest among those who remain. Furthermore, the authorities have taken account of the increasing dissatisfaction of teachers with the many points of administration and content of courses; and systematic revision of the educational system along the lines projected above is expected in the near future.

### New Salary Scale For French Teachers.

The law providing for increased salaries according to a fixed scale is the first organic modification in the scale since 1893 and the most important of all in its effect upon the professional attitude of the teachers of France. It was under consideration for the entire first half of 1919, and in its final form embodied an increase of 500 francs for each grade of teacher over those of the scale proposed under the authority of the ministry of education in January, 1919. The increase was the direct result of public sentiment, led largely by the Federation des Amicales. The main features of the bill are as follows:

1. No person shall be eligible as teacher in primary schools below the age of 18 years.

2. For teachers in primary work, salaries range from 3,500 francs for probationers through the six grades of regular teachers, rising by increments of 500 francs for each grade to 7,000 for the extraordinary class. Each category of teachers is allowed increase of 200 francs for professional training over the minimum required, and for regular teachers in charge of schools having two or more classes.

3. For teachers of higher primary schools, salaries range from 6,250 francs for the lowest class, in some of the schools of the Department of Seine, rising by increments of 750 francs annually to 10,750 francs for the extraordinary class; in the other departments, from 5,250 francs for the lowest class by the same increment to 9,750 for the extraordinary class. Directors (men or women) of higher primary schools receive bonuses of 2,000 to 4,000 francs, or 750 to 2,000 francs, according to Departments.

4. For teachers in normal schools, which include general complementary courses in vocational, commercial, manual arts, and domestic science education, salaries rise by annual increment of 200 francs for five years.

For professors in normal schools salaries range from 9,250 to 6,500 francs according to Departments, rising by increments of 750 francs to 13,750 or 11,000 according to Departments.

For teachers of primary grade, serving in lycées or colleges for boys, salaries are increased by allowances ranging from 400 to 700 francs.

No discrimination is made between men and women; allowances for living expenses, where not made elsewhere, are left to the discretion of the minister of education; no person may be appointed to a post as teacher of schools, including general complementary courses, under 25 years of age and without at least five years of efficient service.

## COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE IN NORWAY.

Plans for obligatory attendance like those adopted in Great Britain and Sweden are being perfected in Norway. The vocational and trade studies are to include such theoretical instruction as tends to broader educational outlook. School workshops are to be opened in connection with the courses. The system aims to include more than the 360 hours and 2 years of the Swedish plan.

## DISSATISFIED WITH RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

The school authorities of Norway are protesting against the spirit in which religious instruction is imparted in some of the folk schools. At the Church Synod in January, 1920, formal resolutions were adopted protesting to school authorities against the introduction of so-called liberal theological instruction in the general schools of the country.

## JAPANESE ENDEAVOR TO CONVERT KOREANS.

**Education Is Their Main Reliance, and Excellent Schools Have Been Established.**

BY THERESA BACH.

Extensive reforms in education are the chief reliance of the Japanese in their attempts to transform Koreans into loyal Japanese subjects. Their efforts in that direction have been continued consistently since the annexation of the peninsula in 1910.

The old-fashioned native village schools are gradually put out of existence in making room for more modern institutions. Common, industrial, and special schools have been multiplied tenfold within the past decade, but the most notable advance has been made in the extension of public common schools. The interest of the Imperial grant for the promotion of education of the Koreans served as a nucleus for the development of the public-school system. This fund was later increased by subsidies from the national treasury and from provincial funds.

At present two distinct types of schools are maintained, one exclusively for Koreans, the other for Japanese children. The Japanese schools are patterned after those in the motherland and are in general of a higher standard than the others. The new type of school for the Koreans is the common school, with a course of study extending over four years. The teaching staff consists of Koreans and Japanese, but the position of the principal is always assigned to a Japanese. In May, 1918, there were throughout Chosen, or Korea, 2 Government, 462 public, and 26 private common schools. The subjects taught are morals, Japanese language, Korean language, Chinese literature, and arithmetic. Other subjects, such as science, physical exercises, drawing, etc., may be included if found to be desirable. Stress is laid on the teaching of the Japanese language.

Higher common schools, or "high schools," as they are simply called, have a course of study extending over four years, and admit boys who are at least 12 years of age and have completed the course of study in the common school. Recent changes in these institutions make obligatory the study of one foreign language—English, French, or German. As Japanese differs from the native language, the Korean child is obliged to study practically two foreign languages. Natural science has been separated into two subjects, natural history and physics, and

chemistry; further, the hours per week for the study of these subjects, as well as for the study of history, geography, and mathematics, have been considerably increased.

Girls' high schools of somewhat similar character have been established, although the course of study is shorter. In general the education of girls has been neglected.

### Ample Provision for Vocational Training.

Vocational education is imparted in industrial schools of four types: Agricultural, commercial, technical, and elementary industrial. In May, 1918, there were 17 agricultural schools, 3 commercial schools, and 67 elementary industrial schools. The course of study in these institutions is practical and adapted to local conditions. Industrial education is encouraged and is offered not only in special institutions, but in the common schools as well. In 355 public common schools, out of a total of 460, courses are given in agriculture, and in 130 schools instruction in handicraft is offered.

### Higher and Professional Education.

"Special schools," corresponding to our colleges, admit both Japanese and Korean students. There are at present four Government special schools—namely, the Seoul Special School of Law and Economy, the Seoul Special School of Medicine, the Special School of Technical Industry, and the Snigen (Sowon) Special School of Agriculture and Dendrology. Besides, there are two private special schools, the Yenki Special School (Chosen Christian College) and the Severance Union Medical School. The course of study in these institutions covers from three to four years.

The compilation and printing of textbooks for school use is in the hands of the Government. The governmental authorities have also issued books of general reading matter, including a picture book for children of preschool age.

### BETTER PHYSICIANS FOR JAPAN.

The remarkable advance in medical science in Japan, brought about by the careful selection of students and supplemented by the close relationship between the medical college and the hospital, was commented upon by Dr. J. G. Schurman, president of Cornell University, in his commencement address to the students of the Cornell Medical College. Dr. Schurman, who recently returned from Japan, was much impressed with his visit to the University of Kyoto. He says that many of the Japanese professors were students in Germany before the war.

## AS OTHERS SEE US.

(Continued from page 1.)

their new country, and that a united national sentiment had not been realized. The war showed the inequality of the opportunities offered to all citizens to acquire an elementary education, much less to have access to higher education. In some places there was a regular school attendance of 10 months a year; in many others there were children going to school three months in the year. Here were teachers systematically prepared for their profession; there were improvised instructors, and both alike badly paid. Many children were not in the schools because there were no places for them; many were prematurely snatched up by trades which were no trades in reality. There was generally insufficient vocational training.

### Unlimited Educational Effort Demanded.

From all these established facts the conviction was born that educational effort ought to be developed to the utmost possible limit.

At the outset, it is to be noted that the campaign thus undertaken did not have as its aim merely to destroy ignorance and to endow with American sentiment all those who enjoyed the right of citizenship in the United States; it contemplated the full expansion of democracy. "Every community," said Dr. P. P. Claxton, Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, in a communication to the Secretary of the Interior, "should be a little democracy; and the schoolroom should be its capitol." These words well express the views of American educators. The historian will record that the war gave an extraordinarily powerful impulse to the idea that the school in all its grades is closely bound up with the life of the Nation, and that there can be no economic and social progress without a corresponding progress in the education of the people.

### The Survey is Original and Effective.

American educational activity manifests itself in many ways, of which perhaps the most original is the "survey." The "survey" is an investigation undertaken, at the request of an institution, a city, a State, by specialists who are strangers to it, and whose mission is to discover "the secret of a local situation," according to Mr. E. F. Buchner, professor of education at the Hopkins University, as well as "to determine the value of a method." For example, the General Education Board directed a survey and published a report of prime importance on "The Gary System;" nine



specialists studied in all its phases the famous system which set American educators at loggerheads. From 1916 to 1918, 63 of these surveys were undertaken. All have not equal value, but there is not one that has not yielded positive results. The few that we have read have convinced us that there is in the survey a valuable instrument of analysis and progress, and we can well comprehend the infatuation that has grown up in America for it.

#### Realization as Well as Projects.

By the side of these views, these projects, one is able to cite many realizations. In 1917 and 1918 more than a thousand laws concerning education were passed in the several States of the Union. One of the specialists of the Bureau of Education, Mr. William R. Hood, notes the general tendency to increase school taxes, to distribute the burden of school expenses over the community, the county, and the State, and in fine to "equalize the chances of education."

#### Vocational Education Board.

Last year we noted especially the Smith-Hughes Federal Act, and the creation, by virtue of this act, of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. This was instituted in order to increase vocational training and to prepare teachers capable of giving it. In the course of the year, June 1918-June 1919, more than two millions of dollars were appropriated for agricultural education. This subvention powerfully aided certain States in the organization of seasonal courses for youths and for farmers' wives. Persons whom we should perhaps call prudent, but whom over there they call timorous, have taken the position that before making such expenses it would be better to have a method of agricultural education which has been better tested. They have not been listened to.

#### The Smith-Towner Bill.

The idea that education does not concern merely the city or the particular State, but the entire Union of States, which had inspired the Smith-Hughes law, called forth the introduction in Congress of the Towner bill on May 19, 1919. Congressman Towner, supported by the unanimous sentiment of the teaching force of the country, proposes to establish a Federal Department of Education. Generous appropriations would be made for this department.

In the United States, therefore, as in England, a movement—I was about to say an agitation—is manifesting itself, as is shown by a common action which dominates the initiative of individuals, of cities, and of States, lending them the

necessary assistance and remedying their weaknesses.

#### Both Extremes Are Bad.

There are some organizations which can be realized by local activity alone, when it is efficient; again, there is a community of educational interest which demands the concurrence now of the State, now of the Federal Government. The United States, like England, have experienced the bad effects of decentralization carried to extremes, just as we deplore those of our absolute centralization; and they are beginning to realize the necessary cooperation between local authorities and the Federal Government.

We noted in the last report that England had already organized the instruction of her mobilized men; and this problem was one that confronted the United States even more urgently. Here, especially, the mobilization affected young men who had not been launched on their careers before joining the Army. The first effect of the struggle against illiteracy and for Americanization was to organize general educational and vocational courses for the soldiers.

#### American Educational Work in France.

One of the first orders of Gen. Pershing prescribed the establishment of a system of post schools where the soldiers might secure the elementary and secondary education of which they might have need. The order of February, 1919, went still further. It provided for divisional centers of education in each Army corps.

Finally, a center of education of the American Expeditionary Forces was organized for those whose degree of advancement did not permit them to be sent to the universities. This was the University of Beaune, where 15,000 men were enrolled for a period of three months. Facilities were accorded the students of all the centers to pursue their studies with a view to their time for returning to America.

A similar effort was pursued in the case of demobilized men. The Bureau of Education recommended that the schools of agriculture be opened to all who might wish to settle in the country. In many places summer courses, from June to August, were organized for them.—*Journal officiel de la République française*. (Translation by Walter A. Montgomery.)

In compliance with a recommendation of C. N. Kendall, commissioner of education of New Jersey, the superintendents and high-school principals of the State observed a day as a rally or recruiting day for teachers.

## PUPILS' PLACEMENT BUREAU.

### Practical and Direct Vocational Guidance in Schleswig.

Pupils' placement bureaus are organized in connection with the folk schools in the part of Schleswig recently acquired by Denmark through the plebiscite. Circulars are distributed to parents of the graduates from folk schools urging the parents to let their children take up a trade and not let them grow up unskilled. A printed blank asks for information as to the trade or calling preferred, and whether board and lodging can be provided at the home of the pupil or whether this is expected to be furnished by the master of the shop in which the pupil learns the trade.

The parents then confer with the principal of the school and the school physician. The former indorses the application by a statement of the deportment and intellectual gifts of the pupils, the latter by information regarding the pupils' physical fitness or unfitness for specified lines of work.

A consultation is then arranged between prospective employers and the pupils through the chief of the placement bureau. The city chamber of trades and commerce and other organizations interested in civic affairs provide for the expenses of the placement bureaus.

### WINNIPEG COLLEGE COMPLETED.

One of the largest and best equipped agricultural colleges in the world has been finished near Winnipeg, Manitoba. It comprises 62 buildings. The construction of the college has been going on for the past 10 or 15 years. During that period the students have been attending their regular courses, but it was not until this summer that the institution was declared completed. There are 500 rooms in the dormitory building.

### SWISS HEALTH MEASURES.

In Switzerland no interests of a boy and girl from the time of infancy till maturity lie outside of the duties of the teacher. In line with this principle the local school boards of Zürich have submitted a program to the central school board of the Canton, looking toward provision of special classes for defectives in speech, sight, or hearing, and for some 30 other specific measures toward improving the child's opportunities with respect to health and training.

## Private Commercial and Business Schools in 1917-18.

By H. R. Bonner.

### Schools.

1. Of the 1,329 private commercial and business schools known to exist in 1918, 890 reported to the Bureau of Education. In 1900 only 373 schools reported.

2. More than 80 per cent (716 schools) of the private commercial schools offered night courses.

### Instructors.

3. In the 890 schools, **5,240 instructors are employed, of whom 2,310 are men and 2,930 are women.** In 1910, 2,112 instructors were reported, including 1,418 men and 699 women.

4. Of the 751 nonsectarian schools reporting the length of the daily session, 608, or 81 per cent, hold sessions of five or six hours (excluding night classes).

### Students.

5. **The 890 commercial schools reported a total enrollment of 289,579 students in day and night classes.** This number represents an increase of more than 50 per cent over the number reported in 1916. In 1900 only 91,549 students were enrolled in day and night courses.

6. The total membership includes 96,449 men and 193,130 women. In 1916, 99,134 men and 93,254 women students were reported. **The enrollment of women students more than doubled within two years.**

7. In 1918, 182,614 students were enrolled in day schools and 106,965 students in night schools.

8. Only three schools have an enrollment exceeding 2,500.

9. **Ten per cent of the schools enroll 40 per cent of all students. Half the schools enroll more than 85 per cent of the students.**

10. The average student does not remain longer than six months.

### Course of Study.

11. In the commercial or bookkeeping course, 36,451 men and 33,069 women students were enrolled.

12. **The enrollment in the stenographic course jumped from 70,554 in 1916 to 152,402 in 1918.**

### Tuition Fees.

13. The usual tuition fees charged for either the stenographic, the commercial, the combined, or the telegraphic (wire) day course are \$10, \$12, or \$15 per month.

14. For any night course the tuition rate per month is usually \$5 or \$6.

### Shorthand Systems Taught.

15. Eight hundred and one schools teach 53 systems of shorthand; 31 did not state the system of shorthand

taught, 8 others gave indeterminate replies, and 50 schools did not teach shorthand.

16. Of the 801 schools, 547 taught only one system of shorthand; 202 schools taught two systems; 38, three systems; 11, four systems; 2, five systems; and 1, six systems.

17. Of the 76 schools enrolling 500 students or more during the year in the stenographic course, 48 taught the Gregg (17 exclusively) and 40 taught some Pitman system (13 exclusively).

18. Ten of these 76 schools taught the Benn Pitman; 9, the Isaac Pitman; 7, the Graham; 5, "Pitman" (text not stated); 5, the Stenotype; 4, the Success; 3, the Munson; 2, the Graham-Pitman; 2, the National Shorthand Machine; and 6, some other system.

19. The 547 schools teaching only one system enroll 85,412 students in the stenographic course. **Fifty-three and two-tenths per cent of these schools teach the Gregg system and 53.8 per cent of the 85,412 students study Gregg shorthand. Thirty-seven and seven-tenths per cent of these 547 schools teach some Pitman system, and in them 39.7 per cent of the 85,412 students are registered.**

20. In 1916, 42.1 per cent of the one-system schools reporting taught the Gregg, and in 1918 the corresponding percentage was 52.2. In 1916, 47.2 per cent of the one-system schools taught some Pitman system, and in 1918, the corresponding percentage was 37.7.

21. Of the 809 schools reporting the systems of shorthand taught in 1918, **64.4 per cent taught the Gregg and 44 per cent taught some Pitman system**, either exclusively or in connection with some other system. In 1916 the corresponding percentage for the Gregg was 54.8. The percentage for the combined Pitman systems in 1916 was not ascertained.

22. From 1916 to 1918 the percentage of schools teaching the Graham-Pitman increased 30 per cent; the Gregg, 17.5 per cent; and the Isaac Pitman, 12.9 per cent; the percentage teaching the Pitman (text not stated) decreased 2.3 per cent; the Spencerian, 9.7 per cent; the Graham, 10.7 per cent; the Munson, 16.7 per cent; the Benn Pitman, 19 per cent; the Pitman-Howard, 32.2 per cent; and the Stenotype, 34.9 per cent. Each system named is taught in at least 17 schools reporting. No data are available for all Pitman systems combined in 1916.

23. The total number of students enrolled in the stenographic course in schools reporting the systems of shorthand taught is 149,124. **Of these, 71.14 per cent are enrolled in schools teaching the Gregg (either exclusively or with some other system) and 58.30 per cent in schools teaching some Pitman system.**